NATIONAL INTELLIGENCER.

FROM OUR PARIS CORRESPONDENT.

PARIS, APRIL 8, 1852.

The political news in France since my last has been of little importance. In its sitting of the 2d instant, however, the Legislative body exhibited unexpected signs of life. This phenomenon was occasioned by a discussion concerning the election of a deputy in the first division of the department of Vendee. The Government candidate was the Count DE SAINTE HERMINE; the opposition candidate, the Abbé DE LESPINAY, (Legitimist;) and the former was elected. The validity of the election, however, was disputed in the committee for the verification of electoral returns; but the result of the deliberations was that the election of the Government candidate was declared valid, and a report to this effect was made to the Legislative body. On this report there arose a discussion, in the course of which M. BOUHIER DE L'ECLUSE (Legitimist) accused the Government of having resorted to the most unjustifiable electoral manœuvres. He admitted that the Government candidate had received about 2,000 more votes than the Legitimist candidate; but contended that nearly 18,000 persons had abstained from voting; and that these abstentions were caused by electoral stratagems and intimidation on the part of the authorities so extensive that they ought to vitiate the election. This speech of M. BOUHIER DE L'ECLUSE was replied to by the candidate elect, and also by M. KERDREL, in behalf of the Government, and, from what I can judge of the debate by the brief report which appears in the official minutes, it must have produced in the house a marked sensation. It is needless to add that the election of Count DE SAINTE-HERMINE was sustained by an almost unanimous vote.

Both the Legislative body and the Senate adjourned on Monday, the 5th instant, to Tuesday, the 13th—the present being "Holy Week."

A bill has been sent to the Legislative body providing for the recasting of all the copper coins of the country. That you may know the exact form of getting a bill before this body, (which can originate no bill itself,) I copy the following decree of presentation:

"LOUIS NAPOLEON, *President of the French Republic*, DECREES:

Article 1. The bill deliberated in the Council of State on the recasting of the copper coins shall be sent to the Legislative body by the Minister of State.

Article 2. M.M. DE PARIEN, Counsellor of State, President of the Section of Finances; VINTRY and TOURANGIN, Counsellors of State, are charged to sustain the discussion of this bill before the Legislative body.

Article 3. The Minister of State is charged with the execution of the present decree.

Done at the Tuileries, the 2d April, 1852.

LOUIS NAPOLEON.

BY THE PRESIDENT:
The Minister of State,
X. DE CASABIANCA.

Official copy.
The Secretary *par interim.*
VAUDAL."

Then comes the bill itself. This bill provides for the withdrawal from circulation as money of the coins of *one liard* and *two liards: of one sou* and *two sous;* and of one, five, and ten centimes. These coins are to be replaced by a bronze coinage of one, two, five, and ten centimes, of the following weight and size:

	Weight.	*Diameter.*
1 centime	. . . 1 gramme	. . . 15 millimètres.
2 centimes	. . 2 do.	. . . 20 do.
5 do.	. . . 5 do.	. . . 25 do.
10 do.	. . . 10 do.	. . . 30 (about 1⅛ inch.)

(A French *gramme* is $15\frac{4325}{1000}$ grains Troy weight. A French *millimètre* is $\frac{3937}{100,000}$ of an inch.

So exact is to be the weight of these coins that no five or ten centime piece will be put in circulation which weighs one per cent. more or less than the prescribed weight; and no one or two centime piece will be issued which varies, one way or the other, a half or one per cent. The new coins are to be composed of ninety-five parts of copper, four of brass, and one of zinc. They will bear on one side the effigy of the President, with the words LOUIS NAPOLEON BONAPARTE; and on the other side the indication of the value of the piece, and the date of its coinage. The amount of the new coins issued will not exceed in nominal value that of the coinage called in. A sum of 7,560,000 francs (about $1,467,000) is appropriated for all the expenses of the new coinage and paying off the old.

A report has been in circulation for some weeks past that LOUIS NAPOLEON was about to declare a general amnesty in favor of all political prisoners arrested since the *coup d'etat.* This report, far too good to be true, seems to be officially refuted by a decree published on the 6th instant, providing that the persons transported this year shall be transported according to a regulation of January 31, 1850, which provides that, so far as possible, they be formed into separate detachments of 500, under the name of Penitentiary Colony No. 1, No. 2, &c. The same decree also provides that, on the proposition of the Minister of War, the President of the Republic can release such of the prisoners as "offer guaranties of good conduct and show an aptitude for work" from the daily *régime* of the penitentiary; and that such persons, under specified conditions, may be allowed a tract of land, and be permitted to cultivate it on their own account.

A telegraphic despatch was received from Vienna yesterday, announcing the sudden death on the evening of the 5th instant, at six o'clock, from an attack of apoplexy, of Prince FELIX DE SCHWARTZENBERG, President of the Council of State, and Minister of Foreign Affairs of Austria. Prince Schwartzenberg was born on the 2d October, 1800, and was son of the Prince Schwartzenberg who was Austrian Ambassador to France under the Empire, and who was General-in-Chief of the Austrian forces which invaded France in 1814. When the revolution of 1848 broke out, the late Prince Schwartzenberg was Minister Plenipotentiary at Naples. In the height of the revolution he was called to the head of affairs in Austria, in which position, whatever may be said of him as one of the leading and most powerful reactionists of Europe, he certainly exhibited signal ability. It is said that Prince METTERNICH may possibly take his place at the head of the Cabinet at Vienna.

I have frequently had occasion to notice, in my correspondence, the claims put forth by the French to the honors of first discovery in relation to nearly all, if not quite all, of the great advances in science which illustrate the century in which we live. I must, as a faithful recorder of events as they arise, note another pretension of this sort, just come to light. It refers to the mooted question of the first application of steam to navigation. M. ARAGO has made a communication to the Academy of Sciences, containing information furnished by M. KUHLMAN, of Marburg, relative to an unpublished correspondence of DENIS PAPIN, the French natural philosopher, with LIEBNITZ. It appears from this correspondence that in the year 1707 Papin, then living in retirement at Hanau, in Hesse-Cassel, Germany, and who was said to have known the applicability of steam power for purposes of navigation as far back as 1695, was not contented, as has generally been supposed, with a few theoretic ideas on this subject, but followed up his projects with perseverance; that, in fact, he caused to be constructed (on the river Fulda) a steamboat, propelled by the aid of two paddles, and built mainly on a system which has since been attributed to an English mechanician. Papin proposed to make a voyage in this boat to England; but various obstacles which he could not remove—though he had the patronage of the Grand Duke of Hesse Cassel—prevented his putting this project into execution. It was in order to remove these obstacles that he addressed to Liebnitz most of the letters which have just been discovered by M. KUHLMAN.

It may be remembered that M. PAPIN was an eminent philosopher, who, in the beginning of the 18th century, was celebrated for his researches concerning the power of steam. He was a native of Blois, France; but, after finishing his studies, he went to England, where in 1680 he was admitted a Fellow of the Royal Society. NEWCOMMEN, a practical philosopher of England, admits that he received from Papin valuable hints touching his discoveries for the improvement of the steam engine. On leaving England, the revocation of the edict of Nantes not permitting him, as he was a Protestant, to return to France, Papin settled at Marburg, in Germany. He died in 1710, shortly after the above mentioned correspondence, and without having seen his schemes accomplished. He died, moreover—as is too often the case with distinguished inventors and discoverers—in extreme poverty.

I propose, in the present letter, to consider Paris from a new point of view. As a city of magnificent palaces, beautiful gardens, and imposing monuments; as a centre of gayety and capital of fashion, we have all heard of it from our youth up. Most of us, in imagination, and some of us in reality, have promenaded its broad beautiful boulevards; lounged in its splendid galleries; made a tour of its famous churches, (from *Notre Dame* proper to *Notre Dame de Lorette;*) sentimentalized at *Pere la Chaise* and the *Place de la Bastille;* and marched in triumph from the Column of Luxor, through the Champs Elysées, to the *Arc d'Etoile.* All this is worth doing, and worth writing about; but so many have done it, and so much has been written about it, that I have thought a glance at Paris from entirely another point of view would have at least the charm of variety; and in these days, when so much is said and sung about LABOUR; when it boasts of princely patronage and CRYSTAL PALACES; and when authors hardly dare to write the word with a small *l*, what better point of view can be chosen than that of industry? I ask your attention, then, to Paris as a *City of Manufactures and Mechanics.* I am indebted for my facts to a report of the Paris *Chamber of Commerce*, prepared under the immediate supervision of HORACE SAY, and bearing every mark of the most conscientious research. The report is entitled "*Statistics of the Industry of Paris, resulting from investigations made by the Chamber of Commerce, for the years* 1847 *and* 1848. It is a royal quarto volume of over a thousand pages, and gives the most minute information concerning no less than 345 branches of business, and nearly 350,000 operatives.

Paris being divided for military purposes into no less than 362 distinct parts, this division was adopted by the Chamber of Commerce in making their investigations; and not only every street and lane, but every house, was made the subject of inquiry; which, considering that there are over 32,000 houses in Paris, and that they contain a population of over a million souls, was no small undertaking. Not only all the manufacturers and master mechanics were subjected to an extensive system of inquiry, but also a large proportion of the operatives themselves. (I use the word operatives, by the way, throughout this article, as a mere term of convenience. It includes both sexes and all ages and conditions of the working population, and is therefore the most simple and expressive term I could select.) No one was compelled to give any information, and perhaps for this reason no one seemed disposed to withhold any. In fact, the Commission was strictly voluntary throughout, and appears to have been actively and cheerfully participated in by all parties.

In the present letter I give the general results of the report concerning the private manufacturing and mechanical industry of Paris. There are several public establishments, such as the National Printing Office, the Manufactory of Gobelin Tapestry, the National Tobacco Manufactory, the Mint, &c., which I may make the subject of another letter.

The various branches of Paris industry were divided into thirteen comprehensive "groups," under the following names:

1. Alimentation. 2. Building. 3. Furniture. 4 Vestments. 5. Threads and Tissues. 6. Skins and Leathers. 7. Carriage-making, Saddlery, and Military Equipments. 8. Chemical Works and Potteries. 9. Mechanics, Hardware, and Work in Metals. 10. Jewelry and Work in Precious Metals. 11. Wooden-ware and Basket-making. 12. Paris Articles. 13. Printing, Engraving, and Fine Paper-making.

Throughout the following statements I shall allude to these several groups by their respective numbers. I must necessarily adhere to the generalization which they involve in order to give a succinct and faithful account of the report; but, in order to make it intelligible to the American reader, it will be necessary to give a brief enumeration of the principal articles in each group:

1. *Alimentation.*—In this group is included every kind of labor incident to the preparation of food, beverages, and condiments of all descriptions—such as bread, pastry, chocolate, cheese, beer, distilled waters, ices, vinegar, mustard, refined sugar, spices, &c.

2. *Building.*—In this group are comprised all the various kinds of work connected with house-building, boat-building, paving, house and boat-painting, house-decorating, masonry, stone-cutting, carpentry, stove and furnace-making, &c.

3. *Furniture.*—This group embraces all the mechanical industry connected with cabinet-making, chair-making, carpet and tapestry manufacturing, wood-carving, and the manufacture of window-blinds, gas-furniture, lamps, bronzes, marble tables, paper-hangings, picture frames, alabaster ornaments, plaster and composition mouldings, &c.

4. *Vestments.*—This group includes tailoring, dress-making, millinery, shirt-making, needle-work, cleansing and dying of garments, boot and shoe-making and repairing, hat and cap-making, &c.

5. *Threads and Tissues.*—In this group are all the various branches of industry incident to the manufacture of threads, laces, ribands, shawls, tissues for dresses, furniture, and counterpanes, plush, cotton canvass, hosiery and cotton wadding; and also the work connected with cotton and wool-spinning, embroidering, wool-combing, thread and tissue-dying, designing patterns for fabrics and embroidery, the making of church vestments, the printing of tissues, &c.

6. *Skins and Leathers.*—In this group is included all the work involved in tanning, currying, morocco-making, parchment-making, dressing and dying goat, kid, and other skins for glove-making, &c.

7. *Carriage-making, Saddlery, and Military Equipments.* Besides the usual labor obviously implied in the mere mention of these branches of industry, there are also included under the same head the work of trunk-makers, fishing gear manufacturers, carriage, lock, and lantern manufactures, the manufacturers of articles for the chase, (such as game-bags, dog-collars, gun-nipples, powder-horns, worm-screws, wadding, shot, &c.) cartwrights, carriage painters, &c.

8. *Chemical Works and Potteries.*—In this group is included the great variety of labor connected with the manufacture of India rubber work, varnish, blacking, paints and colors, inks, paint-oils, candles, gas, glue, saltpetre, tinctures, &c., (for apothecaries,) daguerreotypes, razor-straps, artificial teeth, enamel for artificial eyes, porcelain buttons, earthenware stoves and pavements, small glassware, stone, earthen, and crockery ware, bricks, ivory black, prepared charcoal; and also the work incident to the filtering of water, the refining of oil, the decorating of porcelain, the painting and gilding of glass, the stuffing and preserving of birds, animals, &c. for museums of natural history, &c.

9. *Mechanics, Hardware, and Work upon Metals.*—The trades included in this group are chiefly those connected with the manufacture of firearms, scales and balances, weaving looms, surgical instruments and general cutlery, nails, tinplate, files, optical instruments, locks, tools, wire, sheet-iron, buckles and clasps, church and other bells, iron bedsteads, machines, seals, and nearly all articles of ironmongery. It also includes iron, brass, and copper founders, plumbers, pump-makers, pewter, sheet-iron, and tinplate-workers, gilders and painters of metals, blacksmiths, whitesmiths, &c.

10. *Work upon Precious Metals, Jewelry, &c.*—The name of this group is sufficiently significative. I may add, however, that, independent of the usual branches of industry included in the manufacture of jewelry and the working of the precious metals, there are also included lapidaries, enamellers, engravers on cameos and fine stones, gold and silver assayers and refiners, manufactures of imitation jewelry, and of the paste, false pearls, &c., of which it is composed, gold and silver beaters, watch-case manufacturers, &c.

11. *Woodenware and Basket-making.*—The professions indicated by this group are those of broom, common brush, bucket, and wooden measure-making, coopering, rope, cord, and twine-making, wood-sawing, wood-turning, last-making, packing and the making of hat-cases, packing-cases, cork articles, straw matting, paint brushes, feather brushes, baskets, turf balls for burning, &c.

12. *Paris Articles.*—In this group are included the manufacturers of thousands of articles of luxury for which Paris has a peculiar and deserved celebrity. Among these articles may be mentioned organs, pianos, and other musical instruments, gloves, hats, artificial flowers, clocks, watches, fans, dressing-cases, perfumery, umbrellas and parasols, spectacles, buttons, fine brushes, canes, whips, cravats, portfolios, toys, straw bonnets, hair-work, &c.

13. *Printing, Engraving, and Fine Paper-making.*—This group includes the manufacture of playing-cards, quill-pens, lead pencils, sealing wax, fountain inkstands, and other articles of bureau furniture; and also the business of bookbinding, giltedging, designing for lithographic work, type founding, paper ruling, &c.

In these thirteen groups the report includes no less than 325 branches of industry, representing 64,816 manufacturers and master mechanics, and 342,530 operatives. It will be seen from the following statement that one of the most striking facts developed in the report is the minute subdivision of labor.

The number of manufacturers and master mechanics who employed over ten operatives was only 7,117, while the number who employed from two to ten was 25,116; and those who either worked alone or employed but one operative was no less than 32,583. The members of this last class in fact work at their own homes. They usually work directly for their customers, and to order, or for other manufacturers or mechanics in the same line, without being confined to any one establishment. This class of persons is most numerous among the tailors and shoemakers. Among the tailors there are mentioned in the report 4,650 of them, of whom 1,641 worked alone; and among the shoemakers 4,304, of whom 2,699 worked alone. A similar state of things exists among the dressmakers and seamstresses.

In the following table will be found the number of manufacturers and master mechanics in each group who employ more than 10 operatives; the number who employ from 2 to 10 operatives; the number who work alone or employ but 1 operative; and the number of these several classes combined:

Groups.	Employing more than 10.	Employing from 2 to 10.	Employing 1 or working alone.	Total.
No. 4	1,739	8,547	18,930	29,216
12	833	2,510	2,781	6,124
3	856	2,605	2,252	5,713
2	873	2,300	888	4,061
5	698	1,244	1,857	3,799
1	113	2,066	1,494	3,673
9	545	1,469	1,090	3,104
10	432	1,081	879	2,392
13	350	1,116	769	2,235
11	85	785	691	1,561
8	212	460	587	1,259
7	279	700	274	1,253
6	102	233	91	426
	7,117	25,116	32,583	64,816

It should be remarked that the large number of persons working alone on their own account, or working with but one or two operatives, though it is not added to the number of technical operatives, as distinguished from manufacturers and master mechanics, forms nevertheless a part of the effective force, so to speak, of Paris industry, and should be included in any estimate of the working population.

The following table gives the amount of business transacted by the several groups in 1847; the number of manufacturers and master mechanics engaged in them, and the number of operatives employed:

Groups.	Amount of business.	Number of manufacturers	Number of Operatives.	Total.
No. 4...	f.240,947,293	29,216	90,064	119,280
" 1...	226,863,080	3,673	10,428	14,101
" 2...	145,412,679	4,061	41,603	45,664
" 3...	137,145,246	5,713	36,184	41,897
" 10...	134,830,276	2,392	16,819	19,211
" 12...	128,658,777	6,124	35,679	41,803
" 5...	105,818,474	3,799	36,685	40,484
" 9...	103,631,601	3,104	24,894	27,998
" 8...	74,546,606	1,259	9,737	10,996
" 7...	52,357,176	1,253	13,754	15,007
" 13...	51,171,873	2,235	16,705	18,940
" 6...	41,762,965	426	4,753	4,999
" 11...	20,482,304	1,561	5,405	6,966
	1,463,628,350	64,816	342,530	407,346

The number of trades whose business transactions in the year 1847 exceeded 25,000,000 francs, or $4,850,000, was twelve, as follows: Tailors, 80,649,320 francs; butchers, 74,893,432 francs; bakers, 60,242,390; boot and shoe makers, 43,282,487 fr.; manufacturers of *bijous*, 41,599,934 francs: (bijous are small costly articles, of curious and precious workmanship, serving as ornaments for the person, or as decorations for a parlor or saloon:) gold and silver smiths, 29,026,100 francs; lace manufacturers, 28,404,957 francs; cabinetmakers, 27,982,950 francs; house carpenters, 26,958,885 francs; masons, 26,853,740 francs; linen and cotton drapers, 26,553,698 francs; machinists, 25,647,850 francs.

The number of trades whose business transactions in the year 1847 were between fifteen and twenty-five millions of francs was ten, as follows: Sugar refiners, 23,500,000 fr.; curriers, 23,424,890fr.; carpet manufacturers, 20,663,202fr.; carriage makers, 19,397,324fr.; house lock makers, 18,600,835fr.; bronze manufacturers, 18,493,979fr.; hatters, 16,762,680fr.; carpenters, 16,137,000fr.; house-painters, 16,134,510fr.; printers, 15,247,211fr.

The number of trades whose business transactions in 1847 were between ten and fifteen millions of francs was thirteen, as follows: Manufacturers of skin gloves, 14,268,247fr.; milliners, 12,326,118fr.; oil refiners, 12,260,000fr.; laundresses, 12,060,187fr.; piano manufacturers, 11,486,070fr.; fabricants of artificial flowers, 11,055,668fr.; metal foundries, 10,933,550fr.; fabricants of painted paper hangings, 10,227,150fr.; stove manufacturers, 10,171,847fr.; shawl manufacturers, 9,898,480; fabricants of military equipments, 9,801,350fr.; manufacturers of perfumery, 9,741,853fr.; spice fabricants, 9,621,259fr.

Groups	No. of men.	No. of women.	No of youths.	Total.
1	7,951	1,394	1,083	10,428
2	40,083	135	1,385	41,603
3	28,745	3,845	3,594	36,184
4	30,274	54,398	5,392	90,064
5	11,028	21,874	3,783	36,685
6	4,241	234	98	4,573
7	10,625	2,694	435	13,574
8	6,572	2,727	438	9,737
9	22,081	1,269	1,544	24,894
10	10,835	3,739	2,245	16,819
11	4,021	632	752	5,405
12	17,583	15,540	2,556	35,679
13	10,886	4,410	1,409	16,705
	204,925	112,891	24,714	342,530

It will be seen by the above table that in the working population of Paris there are about two men to one woman, and that the children and youths are to the adults as 1 to 13 28-100.

To arrive at a correct estimate of the whole number of working men and women in Paris, it would be necessary to take into account those who are domestic servants; but these are not included in the report, and I have no means at hand for ascertaining their number.

Of the 24,714 persons who are classed under the head of youths, and all of whom are under 16 years of age, 19,078 may be considered as apprentices, and 5,636 as young persons earning wages. These young persons are found particularly in the manufactories of cotton and woollen fabrics and lace, and among the cloth printers and fabricants of painted paperhangings.

It may be well to state here that the number of cotton mills in Paris in 1847 was twelve, having in the aggregate 56,020 spindles, and employing in all 1,032 operatives. These operatives consisted of 407 men, 479 women, 83 boys, and 63 girls. These establishments transacted business in 1847 to the amount of 2,815,000 francs, or about $546,000.

I come now to the question of wages. The working population of Paris whose condition is treated of in the report consists of 204,925 men, 112,891 women, and 24,714 youths under 16 years of age. Of the 204,925 men, 740 were the sons or relatives of their employers; the wages of these could not be ascertained. Of the others, 9,123 were paid by the month or the year, according to special contract; 117,064 worked by the day; and 77,998 worked by the task or job. The average wages of those who worked by the day and by the task or job, and who numbered 195,062 in all, were 3 francs 80 centimes, or about 76 cents per day. The *minimum* pay was 50 centimes (10 cents) per day, and the maximum pay 35 francs ($7.00) per day.

The number of workmen who earned less than 3 francs a day was 27,453; the number who earned from 3 to 5 francs per day, 157,216; and the number who earned over 5 francs per day, 10,393.

According to this statement, the large majority of the workmen in Paris earned in 1847 very nearly the average wages for that year, which were 3 francs 80 centimes per day.

The report states that the instances where the wages were at a very low rate were very rare, and might be explained by peculiar circumstances. In the case of the boot and shoemakers of Paris, among whom there were nearly 14,000 workmen, there was only one instance of a man's earning so little as 75 centimes (15 cents) per day; and yet in this trade there is a large number of old men who adopted it late in life, and when they could no longer work at their old trades.

In the other instances where the wages were very low, they were given to young boys who had just finished their apprenticeship, and were, so to speak, undergoing their initiation.

It may not be interesting to every one, but it will certainly be so to the various mechanical and manufacturing classes in America, to know the lowest, highest, and average wages paid in the different groups above specified. I accordingly give this information in the following table, in which the groups are arranged according to the rate of wages paid, beginning with the one of which the average wages were the highest:

Groups.	Lowest wages per day.	Highest wages per day.	Average wages per day.
No. 13	1 franc	35 francs	4 fr. 18 cen.
10	1 "	15 "	4 17
9	1 "	16 "	3 98
12	1 "	20 "	3 94
3	1 "	15 "	3 90
6	1 "	10 "	3 87
7	1 "	8 "	3 86
2	50 centimes	10 "	3 81
8	1 fr. 25 cen.	15 "	3 71
1	1 "	7 "	3 50
11	75 centimes	6 "	3 44
5	90 centimes	20 "	3 42
4	75 centimes	12 "	3 34

The operatives in Paris who earn the lowest wages are those who work with the needle. The working tailors and shoemakers, who form two of the most numerous and industrious classes, suffer greatly from the extent and activity of the competition among them.

It should be said in explanation and qualification of the above table that in every trade there is a number of workmen, more or less considerable, who bring to their calling nothing but physical force. These of course earn much less than those who also bring ingenuity and skill. The former, in fact, earn only from 2½ to 3 francs per day, while the latter earn from 3½ to 6 and 10 francs. An example of this is to be found among the masons, with whom the common laborer or hod carrier earns but 2½ francs per day, while the mason, properly so called, earns generally from 4 to 5 francs.

The wages of women are in Paris as in most places about half that of the men.

Of 112,891 women mentioned in the report, 7,108 were the daughters or relatives of their employers. The wages of these are not estimated: 4,157 were paid by the week, the month, or the year; 35,085 were paid by the day; 65,541 by the piece. The average wages of these two last classes (numbering together 101,626) was 1 franc 63 centimes, or about 33 cents per day. The lowest wages paid were 15 centimes, or 3 cents, and the highest 1 franc or 20 cents per day; 930 women earned less than 60 centimes, or 12 cents per day; 100,050 earned from 60 centimes to 3 francs, or 60 cents; 626 earned more than 3 francs per day. The lowest wages are earned by workwomen but little acquainted with their trade, and very deficient in ability. Thus the minimum wages above mentioned were those of two infirm old women the one 68, the other 71 years of age, living upon charity. Then again there is a large class of women who work by the piece, and irregularly, and whose earnings are necessarily very small.

More than 12,000,000 francs ($2,328,000) are paid annually to laundresses, of whom 7,183 receive from one to three francs per day. Their average wages are 2 francs 19 centimes, or 44 cents, per day. About the same amount is paid annually to laundresses in the environs of Paris.

The average wages of the women in the cotton factories were 1 franc 47 centimes, or 30 cents, per day. The average wages of the women in the woollen factories were 1 franc 51 centimes, or 30 cents, per day.

The wages of the youth of Paris are not easily arrived at. Many of them are apprenticed under such circumstances that their actual earnings cannot be estimated. It is only in the large manufactories that they are paid by the day, and these are not numerous in Paris.

In the cotton factories 133 boys and girls earn about 1 franc, or 20 cents, per day as an average; the lowest wages being 50 centimes, or 10 cents, and the highest 1 franc 25 centimes, or 25 cents, per day. In the woollen factories 132 youths, under twelve years of age, earned an average of 1 franc 33 centimes (about 27 cents) per day; the minimum wages being 15 cents, and the maximum about 35 cents, per day.

Among the manufacturers of painted paper-hangings there were 1,331 children, whose average wages were 1 franc 20 centimes, or 24 cents, per day.

From the above facts, carefully collated from the report in reference, you can have a correct idea of the nature and extent of the manufacturing and mechanical industry of Paris; the number of large and small employers, and the relative extent of their transactions; and, finally, the number of operatives of both sexes, and their average earnings per day.

In another letter I propose to send you such facts as I can collect as to the general condition of the laboring classes in Paris, with some valuable statistics as to the extent of their sufferings in consequence of the revolution of 1848.

FOREIGN ITEMS.

The transportation of political offenders to Cayenne has already cost France thirty millions of francs.

ABBAS PACHA, the present Viceroy of Egypt, is a very liberal and enlightened personage. He has reduced his own revenue voluntarily nearly three millions of dollars per annum by taking off the poll tax. He has expended $350,000 on the carriage-way across the Isthmus of Suez; he has improved the navigation of the Nile, and is now constructing a railway between Cairo and Alexandria.

One of the arguments made use of in England in favor of continuing the explorations in search of Sir John Franklin is, that the Arctic regions produce at least eight kinds of vegetables, all of which are nutritious; and that therefore there is no risk of starvation to be encountered by the explorers.

We notice the recent death of Capt. Sir SAMUEL BROWN, the inventor of chain cables, chain bridges, and suspension piers.

The great Western Railway in England now carries coal at the rate of one cent per ton per mile.

A curious old custom was revived at Hamburg on the 10th of the last month. A merchant having failed in business, and runaway from his creditors with all his assets, his name was affixed to a black board over the gateway of the Bourse. Two civic drummers beat the rogue's march, and the *schand glocke* or *shame bell* of the Exchange was rung for two hours.

A new sympathy is developing itself in England. A society called the Aborigines' Protection Society is in full blast; one of the objects of which is to secure to American Indians their political and social rights! There is unluckily a deficiency in the treasury of about $500, so that not much can be done at present.

The Bank of England is now dividing eight per cent. dividends.

English steamers will hereafter not be permitted to go to sea without a due proportion of iron life-boats, signal-lights, and fire-engines.

The amount paid for *shooting certificates* in Great Britain, during the last year, was over $565,000!

GUN COTTON.—Experiments continue to be made in the fortifications at Mentz to render gun cotton serviceable for war purposes as well as for blasting operations. An Austrian artillery officer, Baron Link, is said to have arrived at the most important results, inasmuch as the range to be procured with it, prepared after his system, is much greater than with powder, with a greater certainty of the shot, and less danger of explosion during manipulation.

GRATIFYING OF CURIOSITY.—The Burlington Free Press is responsible for the following:

Last Saturday, the 3d instant, as the Express train from Montreal was running at great speed, to make up lost time between St. John's and Rouse's Point, the Engine man discovered a woman standing in the centre of the track, frantically swinging a basket, evidently with the intention of stopping the train. The whistle was immediately sounded for "down brakes hard," and with great exertion the train was brought to rest within a few feet of the woman, who never stirred from the track, or evinced the slightest fear. The engine-man, fireman, brakeman, and superintendent (who happened to be on the train) ran up to the woman to find out what horrible accident had happened ahead to call forth such strong demonstrations on her part. Each asked eagerly the cause for her signals. "Lawful sakes!" said she, "I never seed one of them machines before in my life, and I do declare it's the funniest thing I ever did see!"

WASHINGTON.

"Liberty and Union, now and forever, one and inseparable."

SATURDAY, APRIL 24, 1852.

THE HOMESTEAD BILL.

The Distribution of the Public Lands, in some or all of the modes proposed, is the chief ostensible subject which engages at present the attention of Congress. There are, to be sure, other topics which the discursive eloquence of debaters has introduced, not strictly connected, or even collateral; but, whatever is said about matters and things in general, or President-making in particular, still the discussions touch the main issue, and plainly manifest a disposition to "blot out" the National Domain.

If the public lands are disposed of by legal enactments, in the ways indicated, the grants will be irrevocable, and the people may hereafter regret but can never repair the error.

Believing as we do, then, that this question involves the deep and permanent interests of the country, we trust to be excused if we depart from our usual rule in regard to matters depending in Congress, and offer some suggestions, more for the purpose of inviting a calm and fixed attention to the different projects exhibited than to urge any definite scheme of our own.

Never had any nation so rich, varied, and extended a domain as belongs to the People of these States, by a just and indefeasible title. It may be rendered available for all the purposes of our Federal Union; and, if prudently managed, might foster and bless our free social institutions for ages to come. The objects to which it may be applied are succinctly stated in the Preamble to the Constitution, and more at large in the eighth section, in which the powers of Congress are specifically defined. Many particulars admit of a good deal of latitude in the explication of them, and much scope is left to the wise discretion of our rulers. We do not wish to be "*strict* constructionists" with regard to them, and will, therefore, only suggest a single rule, which, we think, is obvious. The property of "the People of the United States," whether it is money in the treasury or the public lands, cannot be rightfully used by those who govern our affairs, unless it is done "*in order to form a more perfect Union, establish justice, ensure domestic tranquillity, provide for the common defence, promote the general welfare, and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity.*" Every appropriation of the public estate must have reference to the good of our own citizens in their collective character, as constituting THE COUNTRY. This, in the view of the Constitution, is the "*general welfare;*" and the "liberty" contemplated is that of "*ourselves and our posterity*"—not that of all mankind. We may, as *individuals*, indulge our sympathies for "down-trodden peoples," and may give our money to promote the cause of freedom throughout the world. The separate States, too, may indulge, if they please, in legislative philanthropy, and exhaust their fiscal means in endeavoring to procure universal human emancipation, *provided* that they enter into no "compact" with a "foreign Power" nor "engage in war." But the Federal Government is not allowed to go out wool-gathering. Its powers are limited and restrained. Within their widest range they cannot be construed to warrant an expenditure of the public money to entertain an exile any more than to relieve the wants of a wandering Arab. *Feeling* is no rule of action in the administration of our National affairs.

If these restraining views of the constitutional powers of Congress be correct, still there remains ample room for a wise and beneficent legislation in the exercise of the functions clearly granted. We say that the public property (and we see no difference between money and lands) may be disposed of by legal enactments, for every purpose expressed in the charter, or fairly arising by implication from its terms, in their common and popular acceptation.

As we cannot traverse the whole ground of inquiry, we wish, in a few particulars, to illustrate the opinions we entertain.

By the second clause of the third section, fourth article, of the Constitution, it is declared that "Congress shall have power to dispose of, and make all 'needful rules and regulations respecting, the territory or other property belonging to the United 'States," &c. It is not a question, therefore, of mere *competency*, but of *purpose;* for the disposition of the treasure or other estate of the nation, unless for some object contemplated in the Charter, would be a violation of duty. For what uses, then, may the public lands, or the avails of them, be applied? This presents the precise issue we desire to make and briefly to consider.

The first clause of the eighth section of the Constitution authorizes Congress to "provide for the common defence and *general welfare* of the United States," &c. This is the most indefinite and therefore the most comprehensive of all the powers granted; and, by latitudinarian construction, not guided by other parts of the instrument, might be made to cover the most lavish and wanton waste. Congress can also "regulate commerce with Foreign nations, 'and among the several States, and with the Indian 'tribes," &c. In a specified mode, too, it may "pro'mote the progress of science and useful arts," &c.

The first grant of power referred to *may*, in the opinion of some, be broad enough to include the different projects now before Congress for the distribution of the Public Lands; and if it be not, there is certainly none other that will. We shall confine our remarks, therefore, at present to that particular.

What, then, may Congress constitutionally do to promote "the general welfare?" We say, it may enact such measures as will best advance the intellectual, moral, physical, and social prosperity and happiness of the whole People of this Federal Union, and it may "dispose of" the national domain to obtain such results.

As the true greatness of a nation always corresponds with the mental cultivation of its citizens, Congress may properly foster and assist institutions for Education. It may fix sanitary regulations and create establishments for the preservation of health in our borders and highways; it may facilitate the trade of the country by giving aid to canals, railroads, and other kindred enterprises; and it may encourage agriculture and arts—not by giving land to the landless or money to the individual artisan—but by erecting a Department or a Bureau, which shall have a special charge over the whole concern, and supply what individual enterprise cannot attain. Through its agencies, the products, the experiments, the statistics, the implements, the models, &c. of other nations may be collected and brought home for the improvement of our country in husbandry, horticulture, and mechanical science.

There are other matters over which Congress may, in certain circumstances, exercise a salutary influence for the "general welfare," although it can have no coercive power. *Intemperance*, for example, is a great social evil, and causes much human misery; yet the General Government cannot repress it by any penal enactments, unless in the army and navy. It is possible, however, that an appropriation of the public money might sometimes aid the efforts of private benevolence or State legislation in freeing the country from this desolating scourge. If so, we think it might properly be made.

Having thus noticed some of the objects that may be within the contemplation of Congress when it is about "to *dispose* of the territory or other property belonging to the United States," we beg leave to make a few remarks in reference to the particular measures now pending, that look to a distribution, final and irrevocable, of the Public Lands: and, first, "*The Homestead Bill.*"

The history of this project is not a little curious. When first suggested, a few years ago, the idea of *giving away* the National Domain received but little favor. It seized, however, the attention of a very numerous class, and became therefore popular. A number of prominent statesmen in the last Congress took up the subject, with some little competition as to paternity. Resolutions were offered by several distinguished Members of both Houses of Congress, varying in some degree in their phraseology, but all contemplating at last the entire dissipation of this great fund.

Some of the principles asserted by the advocates of the measure are a little startling to those who have always regarded acquisition as the just fruit of industry, and property as the fair reward of toil and prudent forecast. Mr. JOHNSON, of Tennessee, in a speech delivered on the 25th July, 1850, "contended that the Government had no authority, neither under the Constitution nor in compliance with 'the *four great elementary principles* indispensable 'to the existence of man, to withhold the usufruct 'of the soil from its citizens." We do not know to what the gentleman referred, unless it was to the dogma of Ocellus Lucanus, adopted by Aristotle and the Peripatetics, that all things are composed of four "*elements*," viz. *fire, air, water, and earth.* If this were his meaning, we may doubt the stability of his argument, for later chemists compound all matter of *three* ingredients only—salt, sulphur, and mercury; and perhaps, if some late discoveries are right, the whole mundane system may be resolved into *gas*, and leave "not a wreck behind." This, however, is a mere flight of fancy. The substance of his proposition is contained in a few words, which we quote: "Man cannot live without the use of the 'soil; and Government cannot, in compliance with 'first principles, withhold the essentials of life from 'the people." And again: "Hence we see that 'the withholding the use of the soil from the actual 'cultivator is violative of one of those principles es'sential to human existence," &c.

The principle fairly deducible from the premises thus laid down is, that the Government owns and holds by grant and the payment of the people's money fourteen hundred millions of acres of land, which it offers at prices that thousands of persons have cheerfully given; yet, if a man be landless, and has no money from the acquisitions of his labor to buy with, he has a just claim to have a farm gratuitously bestowed, because the "use of the soil" is one of "the essentials of life."

The doctrines thus asserted are of great importance, not only as relates to the present and immediate object, but in the influence they may hereafter have upon the "general welfare," and the advance of our country in wealth, refinement, and the arts that sweeten and embellish life. We should rejoice to see every citizen the owner of a comfortable "homestead," and should be unwilling to oppose a measure so strongly addressed to our good feelings, if it could be obtained consistently with "the general welfare" of the whole Nation. We doubt, however, whether a donation of one hundred and sixty acres of land to every man who subsists by his labor, thus tempting him to quit his former handicraft and artisan pursuits to become "an independent cultivator" of the soil, would add to his individual happiness, or promote the common interests of the country. Mr. JULIAN, of Indiana, in a remarkable speech delivered in the House of Representatives on the 29th January, 1851, advocated this policy on the *broad ground of natural right.* He held it to be "*wrong for Governments to make merchandise of the earth.*" "It was as free to all 'its inhabitants as the sunlight and the air; and 'every man has, by nature, as perfect a right to a 'reasonable portion of it upon which to subsist as he 'has to inflate his lungs with the atmosphere which 'surrounds it, or to drink of the waters which pass 'over its surface." Again, he says: "Man has a '*natural right to life.* What are we to understand 'by this? Surely it will not be contended that it 'must be construed strictly as a mere right to '*breathe*, looking no further, and keeping out of 'view the great purposes of existence. The right 'to life implies what the law-books call 'a right of 'way' to its enjoyment. It carries necessarily with 'it the right to the *means of living*, including not 'only the elements of light, air, fire, and water, but '*land* also." Here we have, according to Mr. Julian's theory, *five* principles, including a "homestead;" and he might have added, as some other "means of living," bread and beef, and blankets and beer.

This gentleman entirely outflanks the "Anti-Renters," and goes beyond the wildest agrarians of Ancient Rome: yet we believe his sentiments are but the echo of an extensive popular delusion. The opinions asserted in support of this measure threaten to subvert the very foundations of our social structure. If we concede that, because every man has a "right to life," he has also a "right to land" as "one of the means of living," then the question occurs, where shall he get his proportion of this "*fifth element?*" The "Homestead Bill" says that the Government must give it to him out of the national domain. But suppose our fourteen hundred millions of broad acres were all "disposed of"—as they will soon if the present plans are carried out—this fact would not extinguish his "natural right;" and he must seek to obtain its full enjoyment from another source. Some one, then, who holds a superabundance, contrary to this great first law, must *share* with him, that there "may be equality." But who shall thus divide his estate with the landless claimant? and in what manner shall the new